

1 **The Conservation Status of the World's Reptiles**

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3 Monika Böhm^{1*}, Ben Collen¹, Jonathan E.M. Baillie², Philip Bowles³, Janice Chanson^{4,5},
4 Neil Cox^{3,4}, Geoffrey Hammerson⁶, Michael Hoffmann⁷, Suzanne R. Livingstone⁸, Mala
5 Ram¹, Anders G.J. Rhodin⁹, Simon N. Stuart^{10,11,12,13,14}, Peter Paul van Dijk¹², Bruce E.
6 Young¹⁵, Leticia E. Afuang¹⁶, Aram Aghasyan¹⁷, Andrés García¹⁸, César Aguilar¹⁹,
7 Rastko Ajtic²⁰, Ferdi Akarsu²¹, Laura R.V. Alencar²², Allen Allison²³, Natalia Ananjeva²⁴,
8 Steve Anderson²⁵, Claes Andrés²⁶, Daniel Ariano-Sánchez²⁷, Juan Camilo Arredondo²⁸,
9 Mark Auliya²⁹, Christopher C. Austin³⁰, Aziz Avci³¹, Patrick J. Baker^{32,33}, André F.
10 Barreto-Lima³⁴, César L. Barrio-Amorós³⁵, Dhruvayothi Basu³⁶, Michael F. Bates³⁷,
11 Alexandre Batistella³⁸, Aaron Bauer³⁹, Daniel Bennett⁴⁰, Wolfgang Böhme⁴¹, Don
12 Broadley⁴², Rafe Brown⁴³, Joseph Burgess⁴⁴, Ashok Captain⁴⁵, Santiago Carreira⁴⁶, Maria
13 del Rosario Castañeda⁴⁷, Fernando Castro⁴⁸, Alessandro Catenazzi⁴⁹, José R. Cedeño-
14 Vázquez⁵⁰, David G. Chapple^{51,52}, Marc Cheylan⁵³, Diego F. Cisneros-Heredia⁵⁴, Dan
15 Cogalniceanu⁵⁵, Hal Cogger⁵⁶, Claudia Corti⁵⁷, Gabriel C. Costa⁵⁸, Patrick J. Couper⁵⁹,
16 Tony Courtney⁶⁰, Jelka Crnobrnja-Isailovic⁶¹, Pierre-André Crochet⁵³, Brian Crother⁶²,
17 Felix Cruz⁶³, Jennifer C. Daltry⁶⁴, R. J. Ranjit Daniels⁶⁵, Indraneil Das⁶⁶, Anslem de
18 Silva^{67,68}, Arvin C. Diesmos⁶⁹, Lutz Dirksen, Tiffany M. Doan⁷⁰, C. Kenneth Dodd, Jr.⁷¹,
19 J. Sean Doody⁵¹, Michael E. Dorcas⁷², Jose Duarte de Barros Filho⁷³, Vincent T. Egan⁷⁴,
20 El Hassan El Mouden⁷⁵, Dirk Embert⁷⁶, Robert E. Espinoza⁷⁷, Alejandro Fallabrino⁷⁸, Xie
21 Feng⁷⁹, Zhao-Jun Feng⁸⁰, Lee Fitzgerald⁸¹, Oscar Flores-Villela⁸², Frederico G. R.
22 França⁸³, Darrell Frost⁸⁴, Hector Gadsden⁸⁵, Tony Gamble⁸⁶, S.R. Ganesh⁸⁷, Miguel A.
23 Garcia⁸⁸, Juan E. García-Pérez⁸⁹, Joey Gatus⁹⁰, Maren Gaulke⁹¹, Philippe Geniez⁹², Arthur
24 Georges⁹³, Justin Gerlach⁹⁴, Stephen Goldberg⁹⁵, Juan-Carlos T. Gonzalez^{16,96}, David J.
25 Gower⁹⁷, Tandora Grant⁹⁸, Eli Greenbaum⁹⁹, Cristina Grieco¹⁰⁰, Peng Guo¹⁰¹, Alison M.
26 Hamilton¹⁰², Kelly Hare¹⁰³, S. Blair Hedges¹⁰⁴, Neil Heideman¹⁰⁵, Craig Hilton-Taylor¹⁰⁶,
27 Rod Hitchmough¹⁰⁷, Bradford Hollingsworth¹⁰⁸, Mark Hutchinson¹⁰⁹, Ivan Ineich¹¹⁰, John
28 Iverson¹¹¹, Fabian M. Jaksic¹¹², Richard Jenkins^{113,114,115}, Ulrich Joger¹¹⁶, Reizl Jose¹¹⁷,
29 Yakup Kaska¹¹⁸, Uğur Kaya¹¹⁹, J. Scott Keogh¹²⁰, Gunther Köhler¹²¹, Gerald Kuchling¹²²,
30 Yusuf Kumlutaş¹²³, Axel Kwet¹²⁴, Enrique La Marca¹²⁵, William Lamar¹²⁶, Amanda
31 Lane¹²⁷, Bjorn Lardner¹²⁸, Craig Latta¹²⁹, Gabrielle Latta¹²⁹, Michael Lau¹³⁰, Pablo
32 Lavin¹³¹, Dwight Lawson¹³², Matthew LeBreton¹³³, Edgar Lehr¹³⁴, Duncan Limpus¹³⁵,
33 Nicola Lipczynski¹³⁶, Aaron S. Lobo¹³⁷, Marco A. López-Luna¹³⁸, Luca Luiselli¹³⁹,
34 Vimoksalehi Lukoschek^{140,141}, Mikael Lundberg¹⁴², Petros Lymberakis¹⁴³, Robert
35 Macey¹⁴⁴, William E. Magnusson¹⁴⁵, D. Luke Mahler¹⁴⁶, Anita Malhotra¹⁴⁷, Jean

1 Mariaux¹⁴⁸, Bryan Maritz¹⁴⁹, Otavio A.V. Marques¹⁵⁰, Rafael Márquez¹⁵¹, Marcio
2 Martins²², Gavin Masterson¹⁴⁹, José A. Mateo¹⁵², Rosamma Mathew¹⁵³, Nixon
3 Mathews¹⁵⁴, Gregory Mayer¹⁵⁵, James R. McCranie¹⁵⁶, G. John Measey¹⁵⁷, Fernando
4 Mendoza-Quijano¹⁵⁸, Michele Menegon¹⁵⁹, Sébastien Métrailler¹⁶⁰, David A. Milton¹⁶¹,
5 Chad Montgomery¹⁶², Sérgio A. A. Morato¹⁶³, Tami Mott¹⁶⁴, Antonio Muñoz-Alonso¹⁶⁵,
6 John Murphy¹⁶⁶, Truong Q. Nguyen^{41,167}, Göran Nilson¹⁶⁸, Cristiano Nogueira¹⁶⁹, Herman
7 Núñez¹⁷⁰, Nikolai Orlov²⁴, Hidetoshi Ota¹⁷¹, José Ottenwalder¹⁷², Theodore Papenfuss¹⁷³,
8 Stesha Pasachnik¹⁷⁴, Paulo Passos¹⁷⁵, Olivier S.G. Pauwels¹⁷⁶, Néstor Pérez-Buitrago¹⁷⁷,
9 Valentín Pérez-Mellado¹⁷⁸, Eric R. Pianka¹⁷⁹, Juan Pleguezuelos¹⁸⁰, Caroline Pollock¹⁰⁶,
10 Paulino Ponce-Campos¹⁸¹, Robert Powell¹⁸², Fabio Pupin¹⁵⁹, Gustavo E. Quintero Díaz¹⁸³,
11 Raju Radder¹⁸⁴, Jan Ramer¹⁸⁵, Arne Redsted Rasmussen¹⁸⁶, Chris Raxworthy⁸⁴, Robert
12 Reynolds¹⁸⁷, Nadia Richman¹, Edmund Leo Rico¹⁸⁸, Elisa Riservato¹⁸⁹, Gilson Rivas¹⁹⁰,
13 Pedro L. B. da Rocha¹⁹¹, Mark-Oliver Rödel¹⁹², Lourdes Rodríguez Schettino¹⁹³, Willem
14 M. Roosenburg¹⁹⁴, James P. Ross^{71,195}, Riyad Sadek¹⁹⁶, Kate Sanders¹⁹⁷, Georgina Santos-
15 Barrera¹⁹⁸, Hermann H. Schleich¹⁹⁹, Benedikt R. Schmidt^{200,201}, Andreas Schmitz²⁰²,
16 Mozafar Sharifi²⁰³, Glenn Shea¹²⁷, Hai-Tao Shi²⁰⁴, Richard Shine¹⁸⁴, Roberto Sindaco¹⁰⁰,
17 Tahar Slimani⁷⁵, Ruchira Somaweera¹⁸⁴, Steve Spawls, Peter Stafford⁹⁷, Rob Stuebing,
18 Sam Sweet²⁰⁵, Emerson Sy²⁰⁶, Helen J. Temple²⁰⁷, Marcelo F. Tognelli^{3,208}, Krystal
19 Tolley²⁰⁹, Peter J. Tolson²¹⁰, Boris Tuniyev²¹¹, Sako Tuniyev²¹¹, Nazan Üzümlü³¹, Gerard
20 van Buurt, Monique Van Sluys²¹², Alvaro Velasco¹⁹⁵, Miguel Vences²¹³, Milan Veselý²¹⁴,
21 Sabine Vinke²¹⁵, Thomas Vinke²¹⁵, Gernot Vogel²¹⁶, Milan Vogrin²¹⁷, Richard C. Vogt¹⁴⁵,
22 Oliver R. Wearn¹, Yehudah L. Werner²¹⁸, Martin J. Whiting²¹⁹, Thomas Wiewandt²²⁰,
23 John Wilkinson²²¹, Byron Wilson²²², Sally Wren², Tara Zamin²²³, Kaiya Zhou²²⁴, George
24 Zug¹⁰²

25

26 ***Corresponding author: monika.bohm@ioz.ac.uk**

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29

30 **Affiliations**

31 **1** Institute of Zoology, Zoological Society of London, Regent's Park, London, NW1 4RY,
32 UK

33 **2** Conservation Programmes, Zoological Society of London, Regent's Park, London,
34 NW1 4RY, UK

35 **3** IUCN - CI Biodiversity Assessment Unit, Conservation International, 2011 Crystal

- 1 Drive Ste 500, Arlington, VA, 22202, USA
- 2 **4** Species Programme, IUCN, Rue Mauverney 28, 1196 Gland, Switzerland
- 3 **5** IUCN - CI Biodiversity Assessment Unit, c/o 130 Weatherall Road, Cheltenham
- 4 3192, Victoria, Australia
- 5 **6** NatureServe, 746 Middlepoint Road, Port Townsend, WA, 98368, USA
- 6 **7** IUCN SSC Species Survival Commission, c/o United Nations Environment Programme
- 7 World Conservation Monitoring Centre, 219 Huntingdon Road, Cambridge, CB3 0DL,
- 8 UK
- 9 **8** Ecology and Evolutionary Biology, Faculty of Biomedical & Life Sciences, Graham
- 10 Kerr Building, University of Glasgow, Glasgow, Scotland, G12 8QQ, UK
- 11 **9** Chelonian Research Foundation, 168 Goodrich St., Lunenburg, MA, 01462, USA
- 12 **10** IUCN Species Survival Commission, Rue Mauverney 28, 1196 Gland, Switzerland
- 13 **11** United Nations Environment Programme World Conservation Monitoring Centre, 219
- 14 Huntington Road, Cambridge CB3 0DL, UK
- 15 **12** Conservation International, 2011 Crystal Drive Ste 500, Arlington, VA, 22202, USA
- 16 **13** Department of Biology and Biochemistry, University of Bath, Bath BA2 7AY, UK
- 17 **14** Al Ain Wildlife Park and Resort, PO Box 45553, Abu Dhabi, United Arab Emirates
- 18 **15** NatureServe, 4600 N. Fairfax Dr., 7th Floor, Arlington, VA, 22203, USA
- 19 **16** Institute of Biological Sciences, University of the Philippines, Los Banos, 4031
- 20 College, Laguna, Philippines
- 21 **17** Protected Areas Management Department, Bioresources Management Agency of
- 22 Ministry of Nature Protection, Yerevan, Armenia
- 23 **18** Estación de Biología Chamela, Instituto de Biología, U.N.A.M., Apdo. Postal 21, San
- 24 Patricio, Jalisco, 48980, México
- 25 **19** Departamento de Herpetología, Museo de Historia Natural, Universidad Nacional
- 26 Mayor de San Marcos, Peru
- 27 **20** Institute for Nature Conservation of Serbia, dr Ivana Ribara 91, 11070 Belgrade,
- 28 Serbia
- 29 **21** Doğa Derneği (Nature Association), Hürriyet cad. 43/12 Dikmen, Ankara, Turkey
- 30 **22** Departamento de Ecologia, Instituto de Biociencias, Universidade de Sao Paulo,
- 31 05508-090 Sao Paulo SP, Brazil
- 32 **23** Bishop Museum, 1525 Bernice Street, Honolulu, HI 96817, USA
- 33 **24** Zoological Institute, Russian Academy of Sciences, St.Petersburg 199034
- 34 Universitetskaya nab. 1, Russia
- 35 **25** University of the Pacific, 3601 Pacific Avenue, Stockton, California 95211, USA

- 1 **26** Nordens Ark, Åby säteri, SE-456 93 Hunnebostrand, Sweden
- 2 **27** Organización Zootropic, General Projects, 12 Calle 1–25, Zona 10, Edificio Geminis
3 10, Guatemala 1001, Guatemala
- 4 **28** Museu de Zoologia, Universidade de São Paulo, Caixa Postal 42494, São Paulo, São
5 Paulo, 04218-170, Brazil
- 6 **29** Helmholtz Centre for Environmental Research - UFZ, Department of Conservation
7 Biology, Permoserstrasse 15, 04318 Leipzig, Germany
- 8 **30** Department of Biological Sciences, Museum of Natural Science, Louisiana State
9 University, 119 Foster Hall, Baton Rouge, LA 70803-3216, USA
- 10 **31** Adnan Menderes University, Faculty of Science and Arts, Department of Biology,
11 Aydın, Turkey
- 12 **32** Texas A&M University System, AgriLIFE Research, Blackland Research and
13 Extension Center, 720 E Blackland Rd, Temple, TX 76502, USA
- 14 **33** The Wetlands Institute, 1075 Stone Harbor Blvd, Stone Harbor, NJ 08247, USA
- 15 **34** Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul - Instituto de Biociências. Avenida Bento
16 Gonçalves 9500, Agronomia. Porto Alegre-RS, Brazil. 91.540-000
- 17 **35** Fundación Andígena, PO Box 210, Mérida 5101-A, Mérida, Venezuela
- 18 **36** The Katerniaghat Foundation, C-421 Sector-B, Mahanagar, Lucknow, 226006, India
- 19 **37** Department of Herpetology, National Museum, P.O. Box 266, Bloemfontein, 9300,
20 South Africa
- 21 **38** Department of the Environment - Mato Grosso, Brazil
- 22 **39** Department of Biology, Villanova University, 800 Lancaster Avenue, Villanova,
23 Pennsylvania 19085, USA
- 24 **40** Mampam Conservation, Glossop, UK
- 25 **41** Zoologisches Forschungsmuseum Alexander Koenig (ZFMK), Adenauerallee 160,
26 53113 Bonn, Germany
- 27 **42** Department of Herpetology, Natural History Museum of Zimbabwe, P.O. Box 240,
28 Bulawayo, Zimbabwe
- 29 **43** University of Kansas Natural History Museum and Biodiversity Institute, Department
30 of Ecology and Evolutionary Biology, University of Kansas, Dyche Hall, 1345 Jayhawk
31 Blvd, Lawrence, KS 66045-7593, USA
- 32 **44** Guana Tolomato Matanzas National Estuarine Research Reserve, Ponte Vedra, FL
33 32082, USA
- 34 **45** 3/1 Boat Club Road, Pune 411 001, Maharashtra, India

- 1 **46** Laboratorio de Sistemática de Vertebrados e Historia Natural, Instituto de Ecología y
2 Ciencias Ambientales, Facultad de Ciencias (UDELAR) and Museo Nacional de Historia
3 Natural, Montevideo, Uruguay
- 4 **47** Museum of Comparative Zoology, Harvard University, 26 Oxford Street, Cambridge,
5 MA 02138, USA
- 6 **48** Departamento de Biología, Universidad del Valle, Cali, Colombia
- 7 **49** University of California, Berkeley, CA 94720-3160, USA
- 8 **50** Instituto Tecnológico de Chetumal, Av. Insurgentes No. 330, C.P. 77013, Col. David
9 Gustavo Gtz., Chetumal, Quintana Roo, Mexico
- 10 **51** School of Biological Sciences, Monash University, Clayton, Victoria 3800, Australia
- 11 **52** Allan Wilson Centre for Molecular Ecology & Evolution, School of Biological
12 Sciences, Victoria University of Wellington, PO Box 600, Wellington, New Zealand
- 13 **53** CNRS-UMR5175, Centre d'Ecologie Fonctionnelle et Evolutive, 1919 route de
14 Mende, 34293 Montpellier cedex 5, France
- 15 **54** Universidad San Francisco de Quito, Colegio de Ciencias Biológicas y Ambientales,
16 calle Diego de Robles y Vía Interoceánica, campus Cumbayá, edif. Darwin, DW-010A.
17 Casilla Postal 17-12-841, Quito, Ecuador
- 18 **55** University Ovidius Constanta, Faculty of Natural Sciences, Romania
- 19 **56** Australian Museum, 6 College Street, Sydney, NSW 2010, Australia
- 20 **57** Museo di Storia Naturale dell'Università di Firenze, Sezione di Zoologia "La Specola",
21 Italy
- 22 **58** Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Norte, Natal-RN, Brazil
- 23 **59** Biodiversity Program, Queensland Museum, PO Box 3300, South Bank, Brisbane Qld
24 4101, Australia
- 25 **60** Queensland Department of Employment, Economic Development and Innovation,
26 Southern Fisheries Centre, PO Box 76, Deception 4508, Queensland, Australia
- 27 **61** Faculty of Sciences and Mathematics University of Niš & IBISS Beograd, Serbia
- 28 **62** Department of Biological Sciences, Southeastern Louisiana University, Hammond,
29 Louisiana 70402, USA
- 30 **63** INIBIOMA (CONICET-UNComa), Quintral 1250, (8400) Bariloche, Rio Negro,
31 Argentina
- 32 **64** Fauna & Flora International, Jupiter House, Station Road, Cambridge, CB1 2JD, UK
- 33 **65** Care Earth Trust, No 5, 21st Street, Thillaiganganagar, Chennai 600 061, India
- 34 **66** Institute of Biodiversity and Environmental Conservation, Universiti Malaysia
35 Sarawak, 94300 Kota Samarahan, Sarawak, Malaysia

- 1 **67** Rajarata University of Sri Lanka, Mihintale, Sri Lanka
- 2 **68** Amphibian Specialist Group IUCN SSC Working Group, Sri Lanka
- 3 **69** Herpetology Department, Philippine National Museum, Padre Burgos St, Manila,
4 Philippines
- 5 **70** Department of Biology, Central Connecticut State University, New Britain, CT 06050,
6 USA
- 7 **71** Department of Wildlife Ecology and Conservation, University of Florida, Gainesville,
8 FL 32611, USA
- 9 **72** Department of Biology, Davidson College, Davidson, NC 28035-7118, USA
- 10 **73** Laboratório de Zoologia de Vertebrados, Universidade Estadual do Rio de Janeiro
11 (LAZOVERTE - UERJ), Brazil
- 12 **74** Department of Economic Development, Environment & Tourism, P. Bag X 9484,
13 Polokwane 0700, Limpopo, South Africa
- 14 **75** Université Cadi Ayyad, Département de Biologie, BP: 2390, Marrakech, Morocco
- 15 **76** Fundacion Amigos de la Naturaleza, Santa Cruz de la Sierra, Bolivia
- 16 **77** Department of Biology, California State University, Northridge, Northridge, California
17 91330-8303, USA
- 18 **78** Karumbe, D. Murillo 6334, Montevideo, Uruguay
- 19 **79** Chengdu Institute of Biology, Chinese Academy of Sciences, P.O. Box 416, Chengdu,
20 Sichuan, China
- 21 **80** Xuzhou Normal University, Jiangsu Province, China
- 22 **81** Texas A&M University, 210 Nagle Hall, College Station, TX 77843-2258, USA
- 23 **82** Museo de Zoología, Fac. De Ciencias, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México
24 (U.N.A.M.), Mexico
- 25 **83** Universidade Federal da Paraíba, Rio Tinto, PB, Brazil
- 26 **84** American Museum of Natural History, Central Park West at 79th St., New York, NY
27 10024, USA
- 28 **85** Instituto de Ecología, A. C., Chihuahua 31109, Chihuahua, Mexico
- 29 **86** University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, MN 55455, USA
- 30 **87** Chennai Snake Park, Rajbhavan post, Chennai 600 022, Tamil Nadu, India
- 31 **88** Department of Natural Resources, Puerto Rico
- 32 **89** Museo de Zoología, UNELLEZ-Guanare, Venezuela
- 33 **90** Biology Department, University of San Carlos, Cebu, Philippines
- 34 **91** GeoBio Center, Ludwig-Maximilians-Universität München, Richard-Wagner-Str. 10,
35 80333 München, Germany

- 1 **92** EPHE-UMR5175, Centre d'Ecologie Fonctionnelle et Evolutive, 1919 route de
2 Mende, 34293 Montpellier cedex 5, France
- 3 **93** Institute for Applied Ecology, University of Canberra, ACT 2601, Australia
- 4 **94** Nature Protection Trust of Seychelles, 133 Cherry Hinton Road, Cambridge CB1
5 7BX, UK
- 6 **95** Whittier College, Department of Biology, Whittier, CA 90608, USA
- 7 **96** Edward Grey Institute for Field Ornithology, Department of Zoology, University of
8 Oxford, South Parks Road, Oxford OX1 3PS, United Kingdom
- 9 **97** Department of Zoology, Natural History Museum, London SW7 5BD, UK
- 10 **98** San Diego Zoo Institute for Conservation Research, 15600 San Pasqual Valley Road,
11 Escondido, CA, 92027, USA
- 12 **99** Department of Biological Sciences, University of Texas at El Paso, 500 West
13 University Avenue, El Paso, TX 79968, USA
- 14 **100** Istituto per le Piante da Legno e l'Ambiente, corso Casale 476, I-10132 Torino, Italy
- 15 **101** Yibin University, Sichuan, China
- 16 **102** Division of Amphibian & Reptiles, National Museum of Natural History,
17 Smithsonian Institution, Washington, DC 20013, USA
- 18 **103** University of Otago, 364 Leith Walk, Dunedin 9016. PO Box 56, Dunedin 9054,
19 New Zealand
- 20 **104** Department of Biology, Pennsylvania State University, University Park, PA, 16802
21 USA
- 22 **105** University of the Free State, P.O. Box 339, Bloemfontein 9300, South Africa
- 23 **106** Species Programme, IUCN, 219c Huntingdon Road, Cambridge, CB3 0DL, UK
- 24 **107** Department of Conservation, P O Box 10-420, Wellington 6143, New Zealand
- 25 **108** Department of Herpetology, San Diego Natural History Museum, P.O. Box 121390,
26 San Diego, California 92112, USA
- 27 **109** South Australian Museum, North Terrace, Adelaide SA 5000, Australia
- 28 **110** Muséum National d'Histoire Naturelle, UMR CNRS 7205 (Origine, Structure et
29 Evolution de la Biodiversité), Département Systematique et Evolution, CP 30, 25 rue
30 Cuvier, F-75005 Paris, France
- 31 **111** Department of Biology, Earlham College, Richmond, Indiana 47374, USA
- 32 **112** Center for Advanced Studies in Ecology and Biodiversity (CASEB), Catholic
33 University of Chile, Santiago, Chile
- 34 **113** Madagasikara Voakajy, B.P. 5181, Antananarivo, Madagascar

- 1 **114** Durrell Institute of Conservation and Ecology, School of Anthropology and
2 Conservation, University of Kent, Canterbury, CT2 7NR, United Kingdom
- 3 **115** School of Environment, Natural Resources and Geography, Bangor University,
4 Gwynedd, LL57 2UW, United Kingdom
- 5 **116** State Natural History Museum (Staatliches Naturhistorisches Museum), Pockelsstr.
6 10, 38106 Braunschweig, Germany
- 7 **117** Bohol Island State University, Bohol, Philippines
- 8 **118** Pamukkale University, Department of Biology, Denizli, Turkey
- 9 **119** Department of Zoology, Section of Biology, Faculty of Science, Ege University,
10 35100 Bornova/Izmir, Turkey
- 11 **120** Research School of Biology, The Australian National University, Canberra, ACT
12 0200, Australia
- 13 **121** Senckenberg Forschungsinstitut und Naturmuseum, Senckenberganlage 25, D-60325
14 Frankfurt, Germany
- 15 **122** School of Animal Biology, The University of Western Australia, 35 Stirling
16 Highway, Crawley, Perth, Western Australia 6009, Australia
- 17 **123** Dokuz Eylül University, Faculty of Education, Department of Biology, Buca, İzmir,
18 Turkey
- 19 **124** Staatliches Museum für Naturkunde Stuttgart, Zoologie, Rosenstein 1, D-70191
20 Stuttgart, Germany
- 21 **125** Laboratorio de Biogeografía, Escuela de Geografía, Facultad de Ciencias Forestales y
22 Ambientales, Universidad de Los Andes, Apartado Postal 116, Merida, 5101-A,
23 Venezuela
- 24 **126** University of Texas at Tyler, 3900 University Blvd., Tyler, Tx 75799, USA
- 25 **127** Faculty of Veterinary Science, University of Sydney, NSW 2006, Australia
- 26 **128** Colorado State University, Fort Collins, Colorado, 80523, USA
- 27 **129** Australian Freshwater Turtle Conservation & Research Association (AFTCRA Inc.),
28 53 Jubilee Road, Carters Ridge, Queensland, Australia
- 29 **130** WWF - Hong Kong, Hong Kong SAR
- 30 **131** Universidad Autonoma de Ciudad Juarez, Chihuahua, Mexico
- 31 **132** Zoo Atlanta, 800 Cherokee Avenue, SE Atlanta, Georgia 30315, USA
- 32 **133** Global Viral Forecasting Initiative, Cameroon
- 33 **134** Illinois Wesleyan University, Bloomington, Illinois 61702-2900, USA
- 34 **135** Environment and Resource Science Division, Department of Environment and
35 Resource Management, Australia

- 1 **136** WildScreen, Ground Floor, The Rackhay, Queen Charlotte Street, Bristol BS1 4HJ,
2 UK
- 3 **137** Department of Zoology, University of Cambridge, CB2 3EJ, UK
- 4 **138** Universidad Juárez Autónoma de Tabasco, División Académica de Ciencias
5 Biológicas, Villahermosa, Tabasco, México
- 6 **139** Centre of Environmental Studies Demetra, via Olona 7, 00198 Roma, Italy
- 7 **140** University of California, Irvine, California 92697, USA
- 8 **141** ARC Centre of Excellence for Coral Reef Studies, James Cook University,
9 Townsville, QLD, 4811, Australia
- 10 **142** Staatliche Naturhistorische Sammlungen Dresden, Museum für Tierkunde,
11 Königsbrücker Landstr. 159, D-01109 Dresden, Germany
- 12 **143** Natural History Museum of Crete, University of Crete, 71409 Irakleio, Greece
- 13 **144** Department of Biology, Merritt College, 12500 Campus Drive, Oakland, CA 94619,
14 USA
- 15 **145** Instituto Nacional de Pesquisas da Amazônia, Av. André Araújo, 2936, Aleixo, CEP
16 69083-000, Manaus, Amazonas, Brazil
- 17 **146** Center for Population Biology, University of California at Davis, Davis, CA 95616,
18 USA
- 19 **147** School of Biological Sciences, College of Natural Sciences, Bangor University,
20 Deiniol Road, Bangor LL57 2UW
- 21 **148** Museum of Natural History, Route de Malagnou 1, 1208 Geneva, Switzerland
- 22 **149** School of Animal, Plant and Environmental Sciences, University of the
23 Witwatersrand, P.O. Wits 2050, South Africa
- 24 **150** Laboratório de Ecologia e Evolução, Instituto Butantan, Av. Vital Brazil 1500, São
25 Paulo, SP, 05503-900, Brazil
- 26 **151** Fonoteca Zoológica, Dept Biodiversidad y Biología Evolutiva, Museo Nacional de
27 Ciencias Naturales (CSIC), José Gutierrez Abascal 2, 28006 Madrid, Spain
- 28 **152** BIOGES, University of Las Palmas, 35001 Las Palmas, Canary Islands, Spain
- 29 **153** Zoological Survey of India, North Eastern Regional Centre,
30 Fruit Garden, Risa Colony, Shillong - 793003, Meghalaya, India
- 31 **154** Wildlife Trust for India (WTI), Species Recovery Program, India
- 32 **155** Department of Biological Sciences, University of Wisconsin-Parkside, Kenosha, WI
33 53141, USA
- 34 **156** Smithsonian Institution Research Associate

- 1 **157** School of Environmental Sciences and Development, North-West University, Private
2 Bag X6001, Potchefstroom 2520, South Africa
- 3 **158** Instituto Tecnológico de Huejutla, Carr. Huejutla-Chalahuiyapa, A.P. 94, Huejutla de
4 Reyes, Hidalgo, 43000, Mexico
- 5 **159** Museo Tridentino di Scienze Naturali, Via Calepina 14, 38122, Trento, Italy
- 6 **160** Ch. du Bosquet 6, 1967 Bramois, Switzerland
- 7 **161** CSIRO Marine and Atmospheric Research, PO Box 120, Cleveland 4163
8 Queensland, Australia
- 9 **162** Truman State University, Kirksville, MO 63501, USA
- 10 **163** Universidade Tuiuti do Paraná, Curitiba, Parana State, Brazil
- 11 **164** Departamento de Biologia e Zoologia, Instituto de Biociências, Universidade Federal
12 do Mato Grosso, Cuiabá, Brazil
- 13 **165** El Colegio de la Frontera Sur, Chiapas, México
- 14 **166** Field Museum of Natural History, 1400 S. Lake Shore Dr, Chicago, IL 60605-2496,
15 USA
- 16 **167** Institute of Ecology and Biological Resources, 18 Hoang Quoc Viet St., Hanoi,
17 Vietnam
- 18 **168** Göteborg Natural History Museum, Box 7283, SE-402 35 Göteborg, Sweden
- 19 **169** Departamento de Zoologia, Universidade de Brasilia, ICC Ala Sul - Campus Darcy
20 Ribeiro, Asa Norte, Brasilia-DF, 70910-900, Brazil
- 21 **170** Museo Nacional de Historia Natural, Interior de la Quinta Normal, Santiago, Chile
- 22 **171** Institute of Natural and Environmental Sciences, University of Hyogo, Yayoigaoka 6,
23 Sanda, Hyogo 669-1546, Japan
- 24 **172** Medio Ambiente, Salud & Seguridad Ocupacional, Aerodom SIGLO XXI,
25 Dominican Republic
- 26 **173** Museum of Vertebrate Zoology, 3101 Valley Life Sciences Building, University of
27 California, Berkeley, CA 94720-3160, USA
- 28 **174** University of Tennessee, Knoxville, TN 37996, USA
- 29 **175** Departamento de Vertebrados, Museu Nacional, Universidade Federal do Rio de
30 Janeiro, São Cristovão, Rio de Janeiro RJ, 20940-040, Brasil
- 31 **176** Département des Vertébrés Récents, Institut Royal des Sciences naturelles de
32 Belgique, Rue Vautier 29, 1000 Brussels, Belgium
- 33 **177** Universidad de Puerto Rico, Puerto Rico
- 34 **178** Facultad de Biología, Universidad de Salamanca, Salamanca, Spain

- 1 **179** Integrative Biology C0930, The University of Texas at Austin, One University
2 Station, Austin, Texas 78712-0253, USA
- 3 **180** Dep Animal Biology, Fac Sciences, Granada Univer, E-18071 Granada, Spain
- 4 **181** Bosque Tropical, A. C., Privada Marlin # 10, Fraccionamiento Roca Azul, Jocotepec
5 45800, Jalisco, Mexico
- 6 **182** Department of Biology, Avila University, Kansas City, Missouri 64145, USA
- 7 **183** Universidad Autónoma de Aguascalientes, C. P. 20131, Aguascalientes,
8 Mexico
- 9 **184** School of Biological Sciences A08, University of Sydney, NSW 2006, Australia
- 10 **185** Indianapolis Zoo, Indianapolis, IN 46222, USA
- 11 **186** School of Conservation, The Royal Danish Academy of Fine Arts, Esplanaden 34,
12 DK-1263 Copenhagen K, Denmark
- 13 **187** USGS Patuxent Wildlife Research Center, National Museum of Natural History,
14 Washington, DC 20013-7012, USA
- 15 **188** Fauna & Flora International Philippines, c/o International Institute of Rural
16 Reconstruction Y.C.James Yen Centre Silang, Cavite 4118 Philippines
- 17 **189** Via Maestra 81, I - 28100 Novara Italy
- 18 **190** Museo de Biología, Facultad Experimental de Ciencias, La Universidad del Zulia,
19 apartado postal 526, Maracaibo 4011, Estado Zulia, Venezuela
- 20 **191** Instituto de Biología, Universidade Federal da Bahia, 40170-290 Salvador, Bahia,
21 Brazil
- 22 **192** Museum für Naturkunde at the Humboldt University, Invalidenstr. 43, 10115 Berlin,
23 Germany
- 24 **193** Institute of Ecology and Systematics, La Habana, Cuba
- 25 **194** Ohio Center for Ecology and Evolutionary Studies, Department of Biological
26 Sciences, Ohio University, 107 Irvine Hall, Athens, Ohio 45701, USA
- 27 **195** IUCN SSC Crocodile Specialist Group
- 28 **196** Biology Department, American University of Beirut, Beirut, Lebanon
- 29 **197** School of Earth and Environmental Sciences, University of Adelaide, Adelaide 5005,
30 Australia
- 31 **198** Facultad de Ciencias, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México (U.N.A.M.),
32 Mexico
- 33 **199** Instituto y Núcleo Zoológico ARCO, E-04200 Tabernas, Spain
- 34 **200** Institute of Evolutionary Biology and Environmental Studies, University of Zurich,
35 Winterthurerstrasse 190, 8057 Zürich, Switzerland

- 1 **201** karch, Passage Maximilien-de-Meuron 6, 2000 Neuchâtel, Switzerland
- 2 **202** Department of Herpetology & Ichthyology, Muséum d'histoire naturelle, 1 route de
3 Malagnou, 1208 Geneve, Switzerland
- 4 **203** Department of Biology, Razi University, Kermanshah, Iran
- 5 **204** College of Life Science, Hainan Normal University, Haikou, 571158, China
- 6 **205** Ecology and Evolutionary Biology, University of California, Santa Barbara, CA
7 93106, USA
- 8 **206** Herpetological Society of the Philippines, Philippines
- 9 **207** The Biodiversity Consultancy, Cambridge, UK
- 10 **208** Instituto Argentino de Investigaciones de las Zonas Áridas (IADIZA-CONICET), CC
11 507, CP 5500 Mendoza, Argentina
- 12 **209** South African National Biodiversity Institute, Private Bag X7, Claremont 7735, Cape
13 Town, South Africa
- 14 **210** Toledo Zoo, PO Box 140130, Toledo, OH 43614, USA
- 15 **211** 354000 Sochi, ul. Moskovskaya 21, Russia
- 16 **212** Depto. Ecologia, IBRAG, Universidade do Estado do Rio de Janeiro, Rua São
17 Francisco Xavier 524, Maracanã, CEP 20550-013, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil
- 18 **213** Technical University of Braunschweig (Technische Universität Braunschweig),
19 38092 Braunschweig, Germany
- 20 **214** Palacký University Olomouc, 771 47 Olomouc, Czech Republic
- 21 **215** Filadelfia 853, 9300 Fernheim, Paraguay
- 22 **216** Society for Southeast Asian Herpetology, Im Sand 3, D-69115 Heidelberg, Germany
- 23 **217** DPPVN, Rače, Slovenia
- 24 **218** Department of Evolution, Systematics and Ecology, The Hebrew University of
25 Jerusalem, 91904 Jerusalem, Israel
- 26 **219** Macquarie University, Sydney, NSW 2109, Australia
- 27 **220** Wild Horizons, Inc, Iucson, Arizona 85703, USA
- 28 **221** Amphibian and Reptile Conservation, 655A Christchurch Road, Boscombe,
29 Bournemouth, BH1 4AP, Dorset, UK
- 30 **222** University of the West Indies, Mona, Jamaica
- 31 **223** Department of Biology, Queens University, Kingston, ON K7L 3N6, Canada
- 32 **224** College of Life Sciences, Nanjing Normal University, Nanjing, China
- 33
- 34

1 **Abstract**

2 Effective and targeted conservation action requires detailed information about species,
3 their distribution, systematic and ecology as well as the distribution of threat
4 processes which affect them. Knowledge of reptilian diversity remains surprisingly
5 disparate, and innovative means of gaining rapid insight into the status of reptiles are
6 needed in order to highlight urgent conservation cases and inform environmental
7 policy with appropriate biodiversity information in a timely manner. We present the
8 first ever global analysis of extinction risk in reptiles, based on a random
9 representative sample of 1,500 species (16% of all currently known species). To our
10 knowledge, our results provide the first analysis of the global conservation status and
11 distribution patterns of reptiles and the threats affecting them, highlighting
12 conservation priorities and knowledge gaps which need to be addressed urgently to
13 ensure the continued survival of the world's reptiles. Nearly one in five reptilian
14 species are threatened with extinction, with another one in five species classed as Data
15 Deficient. The proportion of threatened reptile species is highest in freshwater
16 environments, tropical regions and on oceanic islands, while data deficiency was
17 highest in tropical areas, such as Central Africa and Southeast Asia, and among
18 fossorial reptiles. Our results emphasize the need for research attention to be focussed
19 on tropical areas which are experiencing the most dramatic rates of habitat loss, on
20 fossorial reptiles for which there is a chronic lack of data, and on certain taxa such as
21 snakes for which extinction risk may currently be underestimated due to lack of
22 population information. Conservation actions specifically need to mitigate the effects
23 of human-induced habitat loss and harvesting, which are the predominant threats to
24 reptiles.

25

26 **1. Introduction**

27 Reptiles¹ and their immediate diapsid ancestors have had a long and complex
28 evolutionary history, having first appeared on the planet in the late Palaeozoic Era,
29 more than 250 million years ago (based on molecular phylogeny estimates and early
30 fossil records: e.g., Hedges and Poling, 1999; Reisz et al., 2011; van Tuinen and
31 Hadly, 2004). High rates of cladogenesis in the Triassic and Jurassic periods (Vidal
32 and Hedges, 2009) produced a diverse group of animals adapted to almost every

¹ here considered to include the various taxa that belong to the non-avian and non-mammalian amniotes: Crocodylia, Testudines and Lepidosauria (snakes, lizards, amphisbaenians, tuataras)

1 temperate, tropical and desert environment, and to terrestrial, freshwater and marine
2 habitats. Reptiles play important roles in natural systems, as predators, prey, grazers,
3 seed dispersers and commensal species; they serve as bioindicators for environmental
4 health, and their often specific microhabitat associations provide the ideal study
5 system to illustrate the biological and evolutionary processes underlying speciation
6 (Raxworthy et al., 2008; Read, 1998). Reptiles generally have narrower distributional
7 ranges than other vertebrates such as birds and mammals (Anderson, 1984; Anderson
8 and Marcus, 1992), making them more susceptible to threat processes; however, it
9 should be noted that there is some marked variation in range size between different
10 clades of reptiles, so that generalisations and comparisons may not hold true
11 universally [e.g., range sizes of snakes are generally larger than those of lizards
12 (Anderson and Marcus, 1992)]. This combination of often small range and narrow
13 niche requirements makes reptiles susceptible to anthropogenic threat processes, and
14 they are therefore a group of conservation concern. Regional assessments in Europe
15 (Cox and Temple, 2009) and southern Africa (South Africa, Lesotho and Swaziland;
16 Bates et al., in prep.) indicate that one-fifth and one-tenth of reptilian species
17 respectively are threatened with extinction. It has also been proposed that reptilian
18 declines are similar in taxonomic breadth, geographic scope and severity to those
19 currently observed in amphibians (Gibbons et al., 2000), although this claim was not
20 quantitatively assessed by the authors. Reptilian declines have been attributed to
21 habitat loss and degradation, as well as unsustainable trade, invasive species,
22 pollution, disease and climate change (Cox and Temple, 2009; Gibbons et al., 2000;
23 Todd et al., 2010)

24 A total of 9,084 species of reptiles have been described so far (Uetz, 2010),
25 and new molecular evidence continues to unearth numerous cryptic species that had
26 not previously been detected by morphological analyses (e.g., Adalsteinsson et al.,
27 2009; Nagy et al., 2012; Oliver et al., 2009). Yet as a group, reptiles are currently
28 poorly-represented on the IUCN Red List of Threatened Species, with only 35% of
29 described species evaluated, and those that are evaluated were done so in a non-
30 systematic manner (IUCN, 2011a). Although the Global Reptile Assessment (GRA)
31 will in the long run address this bias, the current assessment process relies on regional
32 workshops and the formation of IUCN SSC Specialist Groups for specific reptilian
33 taxa, which introduces geographical as well as taxonomic bias into the analysis.
34 Specifically, the Global Reptile Assessment has carried out comprehensive

1 assessments for North America, Madagascar and New Caledonia, with complete
2 endemic-only assessments having been carried out in the Philippines, Europe and
3 selected island groups (Seychelles, Comoros and Socotra). As a result, there are still
4 large geographical gaps which are only slowly being addressed, namely in Africa,
5 Latin America, Asia and Australia. This limits our understanding of how threat
6 processes affect reptiles, so that these taxa are often overlooked in conservation
7 decisions, specifically because the geographical, taxonomic and threatened species
8 bias still inherent in the current IUCN Red List for reptiles makes taking conservation
9 decisions impractical.

10 We present the results of the first assessment of extinction risk in a randomly
11 selected, representative and global sample of 1,500 reptiles, as a shortcut for deriving
12 group patterns on which to base sound global conservation action. We produce the
13 first global species- and threatened species-richness maps for reptiles. The results
14 highlight key regions, taxa and anthropogenic threat processes which need to be
15 urgently targeted to effectively conserve the world's reptiles.

16

17 **2. Methods**

18 *2.1 Sampled approach to Red Listing*

19 Following an approach set out in Baillie et al. (2008), we randomly selected 1,500
20 species from a list of all described reptilian species (Uetz, 2010), using the sample
21 function in R [sample(x, size); R Development Core Team, 2007]. A sample of 1,500
22 species is sufficiently large to report on extinction risk and trends, and buffers against
23 falsely detecting improvements in extinction risk (Baillie et al., 2008). Similarly, the
24 representation of spatial patterns derived from a sample of 1,500 species was found to
25 be in broad agreement with spatial patterns derived from comprehensive assessments
26 in both mammals and amphibians (Collen et al., in prep.). Although the taxonomy of the
27 full species list by Uetz (2010) does not necessarily follow the taxonomy used by all
28 herpetologists, it is the only comprehensive reptile species list available for the
29 purpose of this project. Nevertheless, taxonomic changes based on new research have
30 been incorporated into the sampled species list throughout the project (e.g., the split of
31 Colubridae into numerous families, as suggested by Zaher et al., 2009). It should be
32 noted that the rapid rate at which new species are being described may have some bearing
33 on the representativeness of our sample in the future. Overall, however, we believe that
34 this sampled approach allows for analysis of extinction risk as well as the depiction of

1 broad-scale spatial threat status and processes. A full list of species in the sample, and
2 summaries by habitat system and biogeographical realm, are given in Tables S1 and S2 in
3 the online supplementary material.

4 Our sample closely reflected the contribution of each group towards total reptilian
5 diversity, with the sample being made up of 58% lizards, 37% snakes, 3%
6 turtles/tortoises, 2% amphisbaenians and <1% crocodiles (tuataras were not represented).
7 Overall, 220 of the 1,500 selected species had been previously assessed by IUCN, and
8 these assessments were still up-to-date (i.e., they had been assessed since 2006); for the
9 remaining 1,280 species, new or updated assessments were produced through consultation
10 with a global network of herpetologists and following the IUCN Red List Categories and
11 Criteria (IUCN, 2001). Through a centralised editorial and reviewing process we ensured
12 that the IUCN Red List Categories and Criteria were consistently applied between species
13 and regions. A total of 124 species were re-assessed from previous assessments, and
14 genuine changes (category changes showing a real increase or decrease in extinction risk)
15 or non-genuine changes (changes in category which are due to new or better
16 information becoming available, incorrect information used previously, taxonomic
17 change affecting the species, or previously incorrect application of the IUCN Red List
18 Criteria, rather than a true improvement or decline in Red List category) were noted.

19 Extinction risk was assessed using the IUCN Red List Categories and Criteria
20 (IUCN, 2001). The IUCN Red List Categories classify species' extinction risk from
21 Extinct (EX) and Extinct in the Wild (EW), via the threatened categories Critically
22 Endangered (CR), Endangered (EN) and Vulnerable (VU) to Near Threatened (NT) and
23 Least Concern (LC). A species is listed as Data Deficient (DD) if insufficient data are
24 available to make a conservation assessment. The Red List categories are assigned
25 objectively based on a number of criteria that indicate level of extinction risk, e.g., rate of
26 population decline (Criterion A), population size (Criteria C and D), geographic range
27 size and decline (Criterion B), or quantitative analyses (Criterion E) (IUCN, 2001; Mace
28 et al., 2008). Given the nature of biological information available for reptiles, and the
29 general lack of population data for this group, most of the threatened species in the
30 sample were listed on the basis of restricted geographic range under criteria B or D2 (see
31 Appendix S3 in the online supplementary material for more information on the
32 assessment process and the use of criteria).

33 Threats were recorded for each species. These were coded following Safalsky et
34 al. (2008) and broadly defined as: threats due to agriculture/aquaculture; biological
35 resource use (e.g., hunting and harvesting of species; logging activities); urban

1 development (residential and commercial); pollution; invasive or problematic species;
2 energy production and mining (oil drilling and mining); natural system modifications
3 (e.g., fire regimes, damming and channelling of waterways); climate change and
4 severe weather; human intrusion and disturbance; transportation and service corridors
5 (e.g., roads and shipping lanes); and geological events.

6 All of the species assessments have been reviewed and accepted by the IUCN
7 and are now published online (www.iucnredlist.org, IUCN, 2011a), with the
8 exception of some turtle and crocodylian assessments which are still undergoing sign-
9 off.

11 2.2 Species distributions and maps of threat processes

12 Distributions were mapped in ArcGIS for 1,497 species [three species lacked
13 adequate distributional data: *Anolis baccatus* (DD), *Dipsas maxillaris* (DD), *Typhlops*
14 *filiformis* (DD)], based on georeferencing of distribution maps published in the
15 literature, conversion of point locations into ranges and expert feedback. Only extant
16 ranges were included in the analysis (i.e., extinct, possibly extinct and uncertain parts
17 of the range were omitted). We produced maps of global species richness, threatened
18 species richness and Data Deficient species richness, by overlaying a hexagonal grid
19 onto the aggregated species' distribution. The grid is defined on an icosahedron,
20 projected to the sphere using the inverse Icosahedral Snyder Equal Area (ISEA)
21 projection, and takes account of the Earth's spherical nature. We then summed the
22 number of species occurring in each hexagonal grid cell (cell size was approximately
23 7,770 km²) to obtain the species richness pattern of our sample. We also mapped the
24 proportion of species classed as threatened (CR, EN and VU categories), Near
25 Threatened and Data Deficient per grid cell.

26 We mapped underlying threat processes for all 1,497 mapped species as the
27 number of threatened and Near Threatened species within each grid cell affected by
28 the threat process in question. We expressed threat process prevalence using two
29 approaches. Approach A used the number of species affected by a predominant threat
30 and approach B the proportion of species affected by each predominant threat type out
31 of the total number of species (all categories) present in each grid cell. Although
32 coarse in resolution, as threat processes are unlikely to be equally distributed across a
33 species' range, these aggregations provide an impression of those locations where
34 each threat is affecting a particularly large number of species. The two approaches to

1 threat mapping are likely to emphasise different aspects of the pattern, with approach
2 A more likely to be influenced by underlying species richness patterns, and approach
3 B by threat patterns being observed across areas of low reptile numbers in our sample,
4 where the presence of threat in one or a few species is going to result in a larger
5 proportional value compared to species rich areas. It is also likely to be more easily
6 affected by biases in our sample in areas of overall low reptile numbers. In terms of
7 conservation action, approach A is likely to correspond most closely to prioritisation
8 measures which maximise species richness through targeted conservation (similar to
9 hotspot approaches, although in this case driven by underlying threat processes),
10 while approach b) gives a better indication of areas where a threat process is affecting
11 a larger proportion of species (though most likely in areas of low species richness).

12

13 *2.3 Summarizing the extinction risk of the world's reptiles*

14 We summarized extinction risk across all reptiles and sub-groups (amphisbaenians,
15 crocodiles, lizards, snakes, turtles/tortoises), and by biogeographical realm (see S3.3 in
16 the online supplementary material for information on the geographical extent of
17 biogeographical realms) and habitat system (terrestrial, freshwater, marine). We
18 calculated proportions of threatened (Critically Endangered, Endangered and
19 Vulnerable) species by assuming that Data Deficient species will fall into these
20 categories in the same proportion as non-Data Deficient species:

$$21 \quad \text{Prop}_{\text{threat}} = (\text{CR} + \text{EN} + \text{VU}) / (N - \text{DD}),$$

22 where N is the total number of species in the sample, CR, EN and VU are the numbers
23 of species in the Critically Endangered, Endangered and Vulnerable categories
24 respectively, and DD is the number of species in the Data Deficient category. Threat
25 levels have been reported in this way in similar studies (e.g., Clausnitzer et al., 2009;
26 Hoffmann et al., 2010; Schipper et al., 2008), representing the current consensus
27 among conservation biologists about how the proportion of threatened species should
28 be presented, while also accounting for the uncertainty introduced by DD species. The
29 approach is likely to result in a conservative estimate of threat proportions, since Data
30 Deficient reptiles are often rare and restricted in range, thus likely to fall within a
31 threatened category in future based on additional data [although in other taxa,
32 indications are that DD species will often fall into Least Concern categories (e.g.,
33 birds; Butchart and Bird, 2010) or remain largely Data Deficient (e.g., mammals;
34 Collen et al., 2011)]. Overall, the re-assessment of DD species into different

1 categories is very taxon-specific and depends greatly on the attitude of the assessor to
2 risk, so that it is difficult to make any generalisations about what the future status of
3 DD species might be. To deal with this uncertainty we calculated upper and lower
4 bounds of threat proportions by assuming that (a) no Data Deficient species were
5 threatened [lower margin: $\text{Prop}_{\text{threat}} = (\text{CR} + \text{EN} + \text{VU}) / (N)$], and (b) all Data Deficient
6 species were threatened [upper margin; $\text{Prop}_{\text{threat}} = (\text{CR} + \text{EN} + \text{VU}) / (N + \text{DD})$].

7

8 *2.4 Taxonomic differences in extinction risk and the effect of range size*

9 We followed Bielby et al. (2006) to evaluate whether extinction risk is randomly
10 distributed across taxonomic families [based on the taxonomy by Uetz (2010), but
11 including some Australasian geckos in the Diplodactylidae (Han et al., 2004), see
12 Table S1 for details], and tested for significant variation in threat levels across
13 families using a chi-square test. The absence of a random distribution of risk suggests
14 that biological or geographical drivers of risk exist, which can help focus conservation
15 activity (Cardillo and Meijaard, 2011). Where we detected taxonomically non-random
16 extinction risk, further analyses were employed to determine which families deviated
17 from the expected level of threat. Using binomial tests, we calculated the smallest
18 family size necessary to detect a significant deviation from the observed proportion of
19 threatened species and excluded families represented by an insufficient number of
20 species from subsequent analysis. We generated a null frequency distribution of the
21 number of threatened species from 10,000 unconstrained randomizations, by
22 randomly assigning Red List categories to all species, based on the frequency of
23 occurrence of each category in the sample. We then counted the number of threatened
24 species in the focal family and compared this with the null frequency distribution. The
25 null hypothesis (extinction risk is taxonomically random) was rejected if this number
26 fell in the 2.5% at either tail.

27 Because reptiles are mostly listed as threatened under the range-size dependent
28 criteria B and D2, we explored differences in range size between species groups
29 (specifically between lizards and snakes) in order to assess whether increased threat
30 status in the absence of population data could be potentially linked to taxa-specific
31 patterns of range size. This is particularly of interest since it has previously been
32 observed that snakes have larger range sizes (and hence extent of occurrences) than
33 lizards (Anderson, 1984; Anderson and Marcus, 1992). All tests and randomizations
34 were conducted in R version 2.11.1 (R Development Core Team, 2007).

1

2 **3. Results**

3 *3.1 Global extinction risk of reptiles*

4 We classified more than half of reptilian species (59%) in the assessment as Least
5 Concern (LC), 5% as Near Threatened, 15% as threatened (Vulnerable, Endangered
6 or Critically Endangered) and 21% as Data Deficient. Based on this, we estimated the
7 true percentage of threatened reptiles in the world to be 19% (range: 15–36%), as
8 described in section 2.3. Using the same approach, another 7% of species are
9 estimated as Near Threatened (range: 5–26%); these species are the most likely
10 candidates to become threatened in the future if measures are not taken to eliminate
11 anthropogenic processes which currently affect populations of these species. None of
12 the species in our sample was classed as Extinct or Extinct in the Wild, although three
13 lizard species in the Critically Endangered category were flagged as possibly extinct
14 (*Anolis roosevelti*, *Ameiva vittata* and *Stenocercus haenschi*) and may be up-listed
15 during future reassessments, once “exhaustive surveys in known and/or expected
16 habitat, at appropriate times (diurnal, seasonal, annual), throughout its historic range
17 have failed to record an individual” (IUCN, 2001).

18 Of the 223 reptilian species classed as threatened, around half (47%) were
19 assigned to the Vulnerable category; another 41% and 12% were assessed as
20 Endangered and Critically Endangered, respectively. Threat estimates for terrestrial
21 species mirrored that recorded for all reptiles (19% threatened), because the vast
22 majority of reptiles inhabit terrestrial systems ($N = 1,473$; Table 1). However, for
23 reptiles associated with marine and freshwater environments, 30% were estimated to
24 be threatened ($N = 94$; Table 1). Note that 68 species were dependent on both
25 terrestrial and non-terrestrial environments.

26 Of the 124 species reassessed during this project, 72 species did not change
27 from the previously assigned category. Overall, 46 category changes were
28 documented, only three of which were genuine changes showing an increase in
29 extinction risk. All other changes ($N = 43$) were non-genuine changes. Six species had
30 previously been listed on the IUCN Red List as Not Evaluated, but have now been
31 assigned categories.

32

33 *3.2 Global species richness and distribution of threatened and Data Deficient reptiles*

1 Overall species richness in our sample was highest in tropical regions, specifically in
2 Central America and parts of northern South America (especially Brazil), tropical
3 West Africa, parts of Southeast Africa, Sri Lanka and Southern India and throughout
4 Southeast Asia, from Eastern India to Indonesia and the Philippines (Fig. 1).

5 The tropics also harboured the highest proportions of threatened and Data
6 Deficient species in the sample. Data deficiency was highest in the Indomalayan
7 realm (33%), followed by the Neotropics (20%) and Afrotropics (18%; Table 1). A
8 high percentage of Data Deficient species will give rise to wide margins of
9 uncertainty on any estimates of the percentage of threatened species (see upper and
10 lower margins in Table 1). Oceania had the highest proportion of threatened species
11 (43%; Table 1), although this was based on very low species richness in our sample
12 ($N = 7$), while 25% and 20% of species were estimated as threatened in the
13 Afrotropical and Neotropical realms, respectively (Table 1). The lowest level of
14 extinction risk was recorded in the Palearctic, where 12% of species were estimated
15 as threatened (Table 1).

16 Localised centres of threatened species richness were particularly apparent in
17 the Caribbean (Hispaniola), Florida and the Florida panhandle, the Ecuadorian Andes,
18 Madagascar, the northeastern Indian subcontinent, Central Asia, Eastern China and
19 oceanic islands such as New Caledonia (Fig. 2A). Prevalence of Near Threatened
20 species was particularly pronounced across Europe, central North America, Central
21 and West Africa, Central China and the South Island of New Zealand (Fig. 2B). Data
22 deficiency was particularly pronounced in tropical regions, specifically in parts of the
23 Indomalayan realm (e.g., throughout India, Borneo and the Philippines) and Central
24 Africa (Fig. 2C).

25 Some apparently low-diversity areas (for species richness, as well as
26 threatened species richness) are likely explained by the lack of research in particularly
27 inaccessible areas (e.g., the Congo basin; Fig. 2C) and isolated island groups. It is
28 likely that both relative species richness and data deficiency is higher in these areas
29 than is currently apparent. Furthermore, in some localised areas, the fact that all our
30 analysis was based on a random sample may have led to a slight underestimate of
31 species richness, threatened species richness or Data Deficient species richness.
32 Additional maps of species richness are available in the online supplementary material
33 (S4).

34

1 *3.3 Global distribution of threat processes*

2 Over 80% of all threatened species in our sample were affected by more than one
3 threat process. Agriculture and biological resource use (predominantly logging and
4 harvesting) present the most common threats to terrestrial reptiles (74% and 64% of
5 threatened species affected, respectively). Urban development (34%), natural system
6 modification (by use of fire, damming, etc., 25%) and invasive or problematic native
7 species (22%) also played a role in threat to terrestrial species.

8 Biological resource use was also the most significant threat to freshwater and
9 marine reptiles (87% of threatened species), with most of this threat stemming from
10 targeted harvesting of species. This reflects the large percentage of turtles in the
11 threatened freshwater and marine sample and their role in human trade activities.
12 Agriculture and aquaculture, urban development and pollution (all affecting 43% of
13 threatened species) were also significant threats to non-terrestrial reptiles.

14 Species richness of terrestrial and freshwater species affected by habitat loss
15 was particularly high in tropical regions, especially in the Indomalayan realm
16 (mainland southeast Asia, Sri Lanka, Indonesia, the Philippines and Borneo), but also
17 in Central America (specifically Panama and Costa Rica) and northern South America
18 (especially Brazil) (Fig. 3A). Harvesting was highlighted as a major threat in the
19 Indomalayan realm, specifically in southeastern Asia, Java and eastern parts of the
20 Indian sub-continent (Fig. 3B). Both of these patterns were largely reflecting
21 underlying species distribution and richness patterns shown in Figure 1. Controlling
22 for species richness per grid cell, habitat loss remained an important factor in parts of
23 Sri Lanka and north-western South America, and additionally in Madagascar, with
24 high risk also in some areas of lower reptilian species richness, namely across central
25 USA, the Caribbean, southwestern Europe (particularly Spain), localised areas of
26 North and East Africa, China, northeastern Australia and the South Island of New
27 Zealand (Fig. 3C). Similarly, the picture of risk through harvesting changed to similar
28 areas of lower richness by controlling for species richness per grid cell, with large
29 parts of Europe and Central Asia particularly highlighted (Fig. 3D). In addition to
30 habitat loss and harvesting, invasive species appear to increase extinction risk on
31 islands, but relatively low frequencies of this threat in our sample mask any pattern at
32 the global scale. However, invasive species pose the main threat in New Caledonia,
33 Oceania, New Zealand, southern Australia and on Caribbean islands.

34

1 *3.4 Taxonomic differences in extinction risk*

2 The percentage of threatened species varied greatly among higher-level taxa, driven
3 by the relatively higher levels of threat to species associated with freshwater and
4 marine habitats compared with terrestrial ones (Table 1), as well as taxa-specific
5 patterns of range size. Three of the four crocodylian species and 52% of freshwater
6 turtles were estimated to be threatened ($N = 37$, margins: 46-57%). As a whole,
7 Testudines ($N = 46$; comprising 37 freshwater species, one marine species and eight
8 terrestrial species) were equally spread among Red List categories, with 51% of
9 species estimated as threatened and another 22% assessed as Near Threatened (Table
10 1). In contrast, only 21% of lizards, 12% of snakes and 7% of worm lizards were
11 threatened. The lower percentages in threatened species of these groups were
12 paralleled by a lower percentage of species in the Near Threatened category for all
13 three groups (lizards: 7%; snakes: 5%; worm lizards: 14%), compared with
14 Testudines. Proportions of threatened worm lizards were affected by high levels of
15 data deficiency in this group (50% versus 11% in the Testudines, 19% in lizards and
16 24% in snakes; Table 1). Similarly, our sample contained large numbers of Data
17 Deficient species in snake families that are exclusively, or largely, fossorial or semi-
18 fossorial, such as Typhlopidae [24 out of 49 species (49%) were Data Deficient],
19 Leptotyphlopidae [4 out of 10 (40%)] and Uropeltidae [5 out of 13 (38%)]. Overall, of
20 the exclusively or primarily fossorial families, 47% of species were classed as Data
21 Deficient. As a result, the estimated percentage of threatened fossorial species is
22 relatively low at 11%, but this is associated with a wide margin of uncertainty (range:
23 6–57%).

24 Criterion B was applied to 72% of species assessed as threatened, with another
25 12% of species being listed under criterion D2. As such, the majority of threatened
26 listings were based on criteria of restricted range rather than population data (only
27 12% of species, mainly turtles and crocodiles, were listed under criterion A). As a
28 result, range size differences between taxa may at least in part explain differences in
29 perceived extinction risk. Range sizes were significantly larger for snakes compared
30 to lizards (for terrestrial species only: Kruskal-Wallis $\chi^2 = 44.8$, d.f. = 1, $p < 0.001$).
31 Median range size was 24,510 km² for lizards and 110,175 km² for snakes (additional
32 information is available in section S5 of the online supplementary material).

33 To establish whether a particular taxonomic family was at greater risk of
34 extinction than expected by chance ($p < 0.025$) required a minimum of three non-Data

1 Deficient species in our sample from that family, given a background proportion of
2 223 threatened species from 1,182 species assessed in non-Data Deficient categories.
3 As a result, 18 families were excluded from the analysis (Table 2). Each family
4 required a minimum number of 18 species in our sample to establish whether a family
5 was less threatened than expected by chance ($p < 0.025$). Threat was not evenly
6 distributed across families ($\chi^2 = 141.73$, d.f. = 44, $p < 0.001$), with 34 of the 45 families
7 more threatened than expected by chance and only one (Colubridae) less threatened
8 than expected by chance (Table 2). Of the nine families which showed non-significant
9 differences between observed and expected proportions of threatened species, six
10 were snakes, two were lizards and one was turtles (Table 2).

11 Overall, the most threatened families were the Geoemydidae (turtles, 88%
12 threatened, $N = 8$), Crocodylidae (crocodiles, 75%, $N = 4$), Pygopodidae (lizards,
13 75%, $N = 4$), Xantusiidae (lizards, 75%, $N = 4$), Chelidae (turtles, 50%, $N = 11$) and
14 Iguanidae (lizards, 50%, $N = 4$) (Table 2).

15

16 **4. Discussion**

17 *4.1 Extinction risk of the world's reptiles*

18 This analysis starts to close the knowledge gap between the extinction risk of reptiles
19 and other better-studied vertebrate groups. By establishing a shortcut using a
20 representative sample of 1,500 species, we gain for the first time an overview of the
21 global distribution of reptilian diversity and threat, consequently highlighting
22 important areas for conservation attention and gaps in knowledge. Our results support
23 recent reports of high levels of threat in freshwater habitats (e.g., freshwater crabs;
24 Cumberlidge et al., 2009). In particular, freshwater turtles were highly threatened (46–
25 57%), thus mirroring the alarming trends reported elsewhere (Buhlmann et al., 2009).

26 Some authors have argued that reptiles are undergoing similar declines to
27 those experienced by amphibians, in terms of taxonomic breadth, geographic scope
28 and severity (Gibbons et al., 2000). On a global scale, our assessment shows that
29 threat levels are more severe in amphibians (42% of amphibians are threatened,
30 assuming Data Deficient species are threatened in the same proportion as non-Data
31 Deficient species) relative to reptiles (20%). Overall, threat levels in reptiles are
32 slightly lower than those observed in other taxa such as mammals and freshwater fish
33 (both 25% threatened; Collen, B., unpublished data; Hoffmann et al., 2010), but
34 higher than in birds (13%; IUCN, 2011a). Estimates of 5% for Near Threatened

1 species were similar to those observed in other vertebrate species groups, such as
2 mammals, amphibians (6% each) and freshwater fishes (4%).

3 Recently reported local declines in snake and lizard populations (Cagle, 2008;
4 Reading et al., 2010; Sinervo et al., 2010) suggest localised elevated extinction risks
5 for both taxa. While we estimate that about one in five lizard species is threatened
6 with extinction, only 12% of snakes were estimated to be threatened with extinction.
7 One barrier to listing, which could be partly responsible for the discrepancy between
8 our analysis and those of snake population trends, is that in the majority of cases there
9 are sufficient data on species distributions only, rather than population trends, on a
10 global scale. Therefore the majority of reptilian species were listed under criteria B
11 and D2 (restricted range). The differences in extinction risk between snakes and
12 lizards may therefore be partly explained by the fact that snakes in our sample (and in
13 previous studies, e.g., Anderson and Marcus, 1992) had larger ranges than lizards.
14 Local population declines such as those reported by Sinervo et al. (2010) are
15 evaluated with finer scale population data than those used to evaluate extinction risk,
16 so could serve as a warning sign of what is to come. In order to understand more fully
17 what is happening to the world's snakes, it is vital that we obtain better global
18 population data for this species group. Based on range size estimation alone, we may
19 be missing ongoing declines which are occurring at sub-threshold levels and thus
20 underestimating extinction risk to this particular species group. Furthermore, snakes
21 are morphologically more conservative and harder to sample (fewer specimens are
22 generally available compared to lizards) which, compared to lizards, makes it harder
23 to detect cryptic species. Thus, larger ranges for some snake species may be masking
24 the ranges of two or more cryptic species.

25 26 *4.2 Data deficiency: addressing the knowledge gap*

27 High proportions of data deficiency can significantly hinder our understanding of
28 threat, yet such uncertainty is apparent in many species groups that have been
29 assessed to date. Levels of data deficiency in reptiles (21%) were lower than those
30 reported for amphibians (25%; IUCN, 2011a), dragonflies and damselflies (35%;
31 Clausnitzer et al., 2009) and freshwater crabs (49%; Cumberlidge et al., 2009), but
32 still exceeded those of the more charismatic or conspicuous birds and mammals (less
33 than 1% and 15% respectively; BirdLife International, 2008b; Schipper et al., 2008).
34 Patterns of regional or taxonomical data deficiency could be used to prompt research

1 programmes on specific local faunas or taxonomical groups. For example, data
2 deficiency in reptiles was highest in tropical regions and in exclusively fossorial or
3 semi-fossorial reptiles such as the Amphisbaenia. Similar patterns have been observed
4 in amphibians, where approximately two-thirds of caecilians were classified as Data
5 Deficient (Gower et al., 2005), despite estimates that fossorial species potentially
6 comprise around 20% of the world's herpetofauna (Measey, 2006). It is clear that
7 research attention should focus specifically on fossorial and other elusive taxa (e.g.,
8 arboreal species) in order to reduce rates of data deficiency during the course of future
9 re-assessments of the sample.

11 *4.3 Conservation prioritisation: lessons from the world's reptiles*

12 Conservation priorities often focus on regions of high biodiversity value and/or high
13 threat to effectively target conservation funds (Brooks et al., 2006). The assessment of
14 biodiversity value often relies on the distribution patterns of certain indicator taxa
15 (e.g., birds), and the effectiveness of the resulting prioritisation mechanism greatly
16 depends on the degree to which such distribution patterns are congruent with those of
17 other taxa. However, cross-taxon congruence varies with given metrics of biodiversity
18 (Grenyer et al., 2006). While reptilian species richness broadly mirrored species
19 richness patterns observed in mammals, amphibians and birds (BirdLife International,
20 2008a; Schipper et al., 2008; Stuart et al., 2004), additional areas rich in reptiles (e.g.,
21 around the Gulf of Guinea and southern Africa) or threatened reptiles (e.g., islands
22 such as Hispaniola, Sri Lanka, New Caledonia) were highlighted in our assessment
23 and may be overlooked if conservation priorities are set based on patterns in a small
24 number of non-reptilian taxa alone. This has also recently been demonstrated for
25 Australian lizards (Powney et al., 2010). Thus far, both amphibians and reptiles have
26 been greatly overlooked in reserve selection strategies based on coarse-scale
27 biodiversity surrogate measures (Araújo et al., 2001). Our results provide the
28 opportunity for a more representative view of biodiversity to be compiled in order to
29 benefit multiple taxa.

30 Assessing the global distribution of threat processes, both current and
31 projected, has the potential to provide another powerful tool for conservation
32 prioritization. While for some taxa, the distribution of predominant threats
33 significantly overlaps areas of high species richness (e.g., amphibians, Hof et al.,
34 2011), other studies have shown incongruence between threat distribution and

1 endemic or threatened species richness (e.g., Grenyer et al., 2006; Lee and Jetz, 2008;
2 Orme et al., 2005); however, the latter has traditionally been favoured as a selection
3 tool for conservation priority areas. Similarly, distributions of different threat types
4 may not always spatially overlap (Hof et al., 2011), so that effective mitigation
5 strategies have to be developed in a spatially explicit context in order to reduce
6 extinction risk of species. Reptiles in general are particularly sensitive to habitat
7 degradation because of their comparatively low dispersal ability, morphological
8 specialisation on substrate type, relatively small home ranges and thermoregulatory
9 constraints (Kearney et al., 2009). Clearly, the distribution and severity of threat
10 processes, such as habitat loss from agricultural conversion, logging and over-
11 exploitation, will shape the future fortune of reptiles. Identifying centres of threat, and
12 tackling the origins and effects of anthropogenic threats in these regions through
13 targeted projects (particularly in areas affected by multiple threat processes such
14 as Southeast Asia) will allow more proactive action to be taken to secure the future of
15 reptiles. At the moment the spatial resolution of our species-specific maps of threat
16 processes is still somewhat coarse and allows only the depiction of broad patterns in
17 threat distribution, but future developments and refinements of the method are likely
18 to provide a powerful tool with which to focus threat-specific mitigation projects.

19

20 *4.4 Reptile conservation: the next steps*

21 This work provides a first step in assessing the global extinction risk of
22 reptiles by employing a short-cut method based on a representative sample of 1,500
23 species. While this assessment feeds into broader scale assessments of biodiversity as
24 a whole, as part of the Sampled Red List Index project (Baillie et al., 2008), it is also
25 important to feed this information into similar regional assessments, since concrete
26 policy decisions are generally being taken at sub-global levels. Specifically, it is
27 important that the data presented here is used to assess how existing and planned
28 protected areas are benefitting the world's reptiles. This will allow us to identify
29 species which at present fall outside protected areas and are most in need of
30 conservation actions, and address the fact that the world's herpetofauna is still often
31 overlooked when conservation decisions are taken. The Global Reptile Assessment
32 (GRA) is currently carrying out assessments via regional workshops, which bring
33 together species experts to discuss extinction risk and conservation priorities. For
34 example, the recent assessment of Madagascan snakes and lizards has helped in

1 evaluating the effectiveness of protected areas for reptiles, with new conservation
2 areas being designated across the island aiming to provide protection to some of the
3 most threatened species (IUCN, 2011b).

4 While the extensive expert network established during this project is
5 undoubtedly going to feed into global and regional assessment projects, regional data
6 gaps are apparent. It is vital that these are addressed in order to complete our picture
7 of the distribution and extinction risk patterns of reptiles, so that conservation actions
8 can be targeted at regions and areas most in need. Specifically, surveys are needed for
9 key areas (e.g., areas rich in Data Deficient reptiles) and species (e.g., possibly extinct
10 and Data Deficient species; establishing snake population time series to complement
11 distribution data) in order to fill knowledge gaps and to build regional survey capacity
12 via collaborations and targeted capacity building projects.

13 While we have established a snapshot of the current status of reptiles
14 worldwide, it is now vital to establish trends in this status in order to gauge the rate of
15 change in reptilian extinction risk over time. The next step is to establish a baseline
16 for reptilian extinction risk against which we can compare current status as well as
17 future re-assessments of the sample. This information is vital in order to assess our
18 progress toward global biodiversity targets, such as the Aichi targets and the
19 Millennium Development Goals, and fuel efforts to address the conservation needs of
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26

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- 14

1 **Figure legends**

2

3 Figure 1. Global species richness distribution of the sampled reptile assessment
4 ($N_{terr/fw} = 1,485$; $N_{marine} = 22$). Terr/fw – terrestrial and freshwater species.

5

6 Figure 2. Distribution of threatened (CR, EN, VU), Near Threatened (NT) and Data

7 Deficient (DD) species in the sample (terrestrial and freshwater only), expressed as

8 the proportion of all species present per grid cell: A) proportion of species classed as

9 threatened, adjusted to account for DD species as described in section 2.3; B)

10 proportion of species classed as Near Threatened, adjusted to account for DD species

11 as described in section 2.3; and C) proportion of species classed as Data Deficient per

12 grid cell.

13

14 Figure 3. Global distribution of species affected by the two major threats to terrestrial

15 and freshwater reptiles: A) number of species affected by habitat loss from agriculture

16 and logging and B) number of species affected by harvesting. Controlling for species

17 richness per grid cell, we expressed the number of species in elevated threat

18 categories (CR, EN, VU, NT) affected by the threat in question as the proportion of

19 the total species richness (all categories) per grid cell for C) habitat loss from

20 agriculture and logging and D) harvesting.

21

1 **Tables**

2

3 Table 1. Extinction risk in a subsample of 1,500 reptiles by order, biogeographic
 4 realm and habitat system. The number of species falling into each IUCN Category are
 5 listed, from which % threatened has been calculated as described in section 2.3

Taxon	DD	LC	NT	VU	EN	CR	N	No. of species		% threatened		
								Described	% sampled	Threatened %	Lower	Upper
Reptiles	318	881	78	105	92	26	1500	9413	15.9	18.9	14.9	36.1
Amphisbaenia	14	11	2	0	1	0	28	181	15.5	7.1	3.6	53.6
Crocodylia	0	1	0	2	0	1	4	24	16.7	75	75	75
Sauria	164	506	48	72	63	14	867	5,537	15.7	21.2	17.2	36.1
Serpentes	135	352	19	24	20	5	555	3,346	16.6	11.7	8.8	33.2
Testudines	5	11	9	7	8	6	46	323	14.2	51.2	45.7	56.5
Realm												
Afrotropical	53	161	15	33	22	5	289			25.4	20.8	39.1
Australasian	32	149	9	10	14	5	219			15.5	13.2	27.9
Indomalayan	105	167	13	15	10	5	315			14.3	9.5	42.9
Nearctic	2	72	7	7	3	3	94			14.1	13.8	16.0
Neotropical	107	309	27	38	35	11	527			20.0	15.9	36.2
Oceanian	0	4	0	0	2	1	7			42.9	42.9	42.9
Palaeartic	25	105	8	6	8	2	154			12.4	10.4	26.6
Habitat system												
Terrestrial	313	861	78	105	91	25	1473			19.1	15.0	36.3
Freshwater & marine	16	44	11	9	8	6	94			29.5	24.5	41.5
Subsurface	50	46	5	1	5	0	107			10.5	5.6	57.0

6 DD – Data Deficient; LC – Least Concern; NT – Near Threatened; VU – Vulnerable;
 7 EN – Endangered; CR – Critically Endangered. Percentage threatened: assumes DD
 8 species are threatened in the same proportion as non-DD species; Lower margin: no
 9 DD species threatened; Upper margin: all DD species threatened. Number of
 10 described species is based on Uetz (2010). Rhynchocephalia (Tuatara) was not
 11 represented in our random sample. Subsurface includes completely or primarily
 12 fossorial families: Amphisbaenidae, Anomalepidae, Dibamidae, Leptotyphlopidae,
 13 Trogonophidae, Typhlopidae, Uropeltidae, Xenopeltidae.

14

15

1 Table 2. Threat distribution across families included in our random sample of 1,500
 2 species: ns, not significant; - significantly under threatened; + significantly over
 3 threatened.

Family	Proportion observed	Proportion expected	Total species (non-DD)	>Expected threat level p-value	<Expected threat level p-value	Under or over threatened
Agamidae	0.05	0.05	61	0.635	0.365	ns
Amphisbaenidae	0.07	0.01	14	<0.001	1	+
Anguidae	0.29	0.01	17	<0.001	1	+
Atractaspidae	0.00	0.00	6	0.714	0.286	ns
Boidae	0.15	0.01	13	<0.001	1	+
Calamariidae	0.18	0.01	11	<0.001	1	+
Carphodactylidae	0.17	0.00	6	<0.001	1	+
Chamaeleonidae	0.43	0.03	35	<0.001	1	+
Chelidae	0.50	0.01	10	<0.001	1	+
Colubridae	0.04	0.07	78	0.98	0.02	-
Cordylidae	0.44	0.01	9	<0.001	1	+
Crocodylidae	0.75	0.00	4	<0.001	1	+
Crotaphytidae	0.33	0.00	3	<0.001	1	+
Diplodactylidae	0.23	0.01	13	<0.001	1	+
Dipsadidae	0.10	0.08	98	0.147	0.853	ns
Elapidae	0.15	0.05	55	<0.001	1	+
Emydidae	0.33	0.00	6	<0.001	1	+
Gekkonidae	0.12	0.08	91	0.01	0.999	+
Geoemydidae	0.88	0.01	8	<0.001	1	+
Gerrhosauridae	0.17	0.00	6	<0.001	1	+
Gymnophthalmidae	0.39	0.03	31	<0.001	1	+
Homalopsidae	0.17	0.00	6	<0.001	1	+
Iguanidae	0.50	0.00	4	<0.001	1	+
Lacertidae	0.16	0.03	37	<0.001	1	+
Lamprophiidae	0.27	0.03	30	<0.001	1	+
Leptotyphlopidae	0.00	0.00	6	0.72	0.28	ns
Natricidae	0.04	0.02	26	0.049	0.951	+
Pelomedusidae	0.00	0.00	4	0.566	0.434	ns
Phrynosomatidae	0.17	0.03	30	<0.001	1	+
Phyllodactylidae	0.08	0.01	13	<0.001	1	+
Polychrotidae	0.31	0.05	61	<0.001	1	+
Psammophiidae	0.00	0.00	4	0.596	0.404	ns
Pseudoxenodontidae	0.00	0.00	3	0.468	0.532	ns
Pygopodidae	0.75	0.00	4	<0.001	1	+
Scincidae	0.22	0.14	167	<0.001	1	+
Sphaerodactylidae	0.22	0.03	32	<0.001	1	+
Teiidae	0.22	0.01	18	<0.001	1	+
Testudinidae	0.43	0.00	7	<0.001	1	+
Trionychidae	0.33	0.00	3	<0.001	1	+
Tropiduridae	0.13	0.04	45	<0.001	1	+
Typhlopidae	0.20	0.02	25	<0.001	1	+
Uropeltidae	0.00	0.00	8	0.832	0.168	ns
Varanidae	0.00	0.01	10	0.875	0.125	ns
Viperidae	0.19	0.04	42	<0.001	1	+
Xantusiidae	0.75	0.00	4	<0.001	1	+

4